CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE KENNERLEY ROAD 69kV TRANSMISSION PROJECT, RICHLAND COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

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ABSTRACT

This study provides the results of a cultural resources investigation of a 1.2 mile transmission line and substation situated in the northwestern portion of Richland County, South Carolina. The study was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation for Mr. Tommy Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative and is intended to assist the client comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The corridor is to be used by Central Electric Power Cooperative for the construction of a 69kV transmission line which will connect to the existing Friarsgate to Chapin No. 2 line just south of Interstate 26. The line will head northwest to US 176 where it will connect to a proposed substation.

The proposed substation and transmission line will require the clearing of the area, followed by construction of the proposed facility and powerlines. These activities have the potential to affect archaeological and historical sites and this survey was conducted to identify and assess archaeological and historical sites which may be in the project corridor. For this study an area of potential effect (APE) 0.5 mile around the proposed substation and transmission line was assumed.

Consultation with the S.C. Department of Archives and History revealed no properties in or near the project corridor that have been determined eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. Five other resources, however, have been identified within the APE, but determined not eligible for the National Register. The survey, conducted in 2002 by Edwards-Pitman Environmental, Inc., identified 4953, a ca. 1925 house; 4993, a ca. 1925 house; 4921, a ca. 1900 house; 4950, the ca. 1883 Eleazer house; and 4954, a ca. 1925 house (Martin et al. 2002).

An investigation of the archaeological site files at the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology identified no archaeological sites within a 0.5 mile area of potential effect (APE).

The archaeological survey of the tract incorporated shovel testing at 100-foot intervals along the center line of the transmission line which has a 75 foot right-of-way. Shovel tests were also placed at 100-foot intervals within the proposed substation site. All shovel test fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the shovel tests were backfilled at the completion of the study. A total of 67 shovel tests were excavated along the transmission route with 8 additional tests for the substation.

As a result of these investigations no archaeological sites were found. This is likely due to the lack of any significant ridge top and distance from any permanent water source.

A survey of public roads within 0.5 mile of the proposed undertaking was conducted in an effort to identify any architectural sites over 50 years old which also retained their integrity. Only two (4953 and 4993) of the five originally identified resources are visible from the survey corridor, but the line is still about 400 feet from each structure. In addition, the houses are located on a fairly busy road with existing powerlines, so there will be no additional impact by the proposed transmission line.

Finally, it is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during clearing activities. Crews should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office or to Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No construction should take place in the vicinity of these late discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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INTRODUCTION

This investigation was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Tommy Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative The work was conducted to assist the client comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The project site consists of a corridor measuring about 1.2 miles and a substation situated in northwestern Richland County, South Carolina (Figure 1). The corridor begins from an existing powerline and runs northwest to a new substation lot.

The corridor consists of slightly sloping land and runs through areas of mixed pine and hardwood forests, wetland, and open fallow fields. The proposed substation is situated in a mixed pine and hardwood forest along S-176.

The corridor, as previously mentioned, is intended to be used as a transmission route for a 69kV power line. Landscape alteration, primarily clearing, subsequent erection of the poles, erecting lines, and long-term maintenance of the corridor, will cause some damage to the ground surface and any archaeological resources which may be present in the survey area.

Construction and maintenance of the substation may also have an impact on historic resources in the project area. Although the project will not remove any structures, substations (as well as other above grade projects) may detract from the visual integrity of historic properties, creating what may consider discordant surroundings. As a result, this architectural survey uses an area of potential effect (APE) about 0.5 mile in diameter around the proposed facility.

This study, however, does not consider any future secondary impact of the project, including increased or expanded development, including increased or expanded development, of this portion of Richland County.

We were requested by Mr. Tommy L. Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative to conduct a cultural resources survey for the proposed transmission line and substation on January 21, 2003. This incorporated a review of the site files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. As a result of that work, no sites were identified.

In addition, the South Carolina Department of Archives and History GIS was consulted to check for any NRHP buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects in the study area. No NRHP sites were found with 0.5 mile of the survey. A survey conducted in 2002, however, identified five resources, 4953, a ca. 1925 house; 4993, a ca. 1925 house; 4921, a ca. 1900 house; 4950, the ca. 1883 Eleazer house; and 4954, a ca. 1925 house (Martin et al. 2002). All have been determined not eligible for the National Register by the State Historic Preservation Office. Two of the resources, 4953 and 4993 have a direct view of the transmission line, but are at least 400 feet from the line. In addition, the structures are already located on a fairly busy road with an existing transmission line. There will be no impact by the new transmission line.

Archival and historical research was limited to a review of secondary sources available in the Chicora Foundation files.

The archaeological survey was conducted on February 14, 2003 by Mr. Tom Covington and Nicole Southerland under the direction of Dr. Michael Trinkley and revealed no archaeological sites.

Report production was conducted at Chicora's laboratories in Columbia, South Carolina from February 18-20. The only photographic materials associated with this project

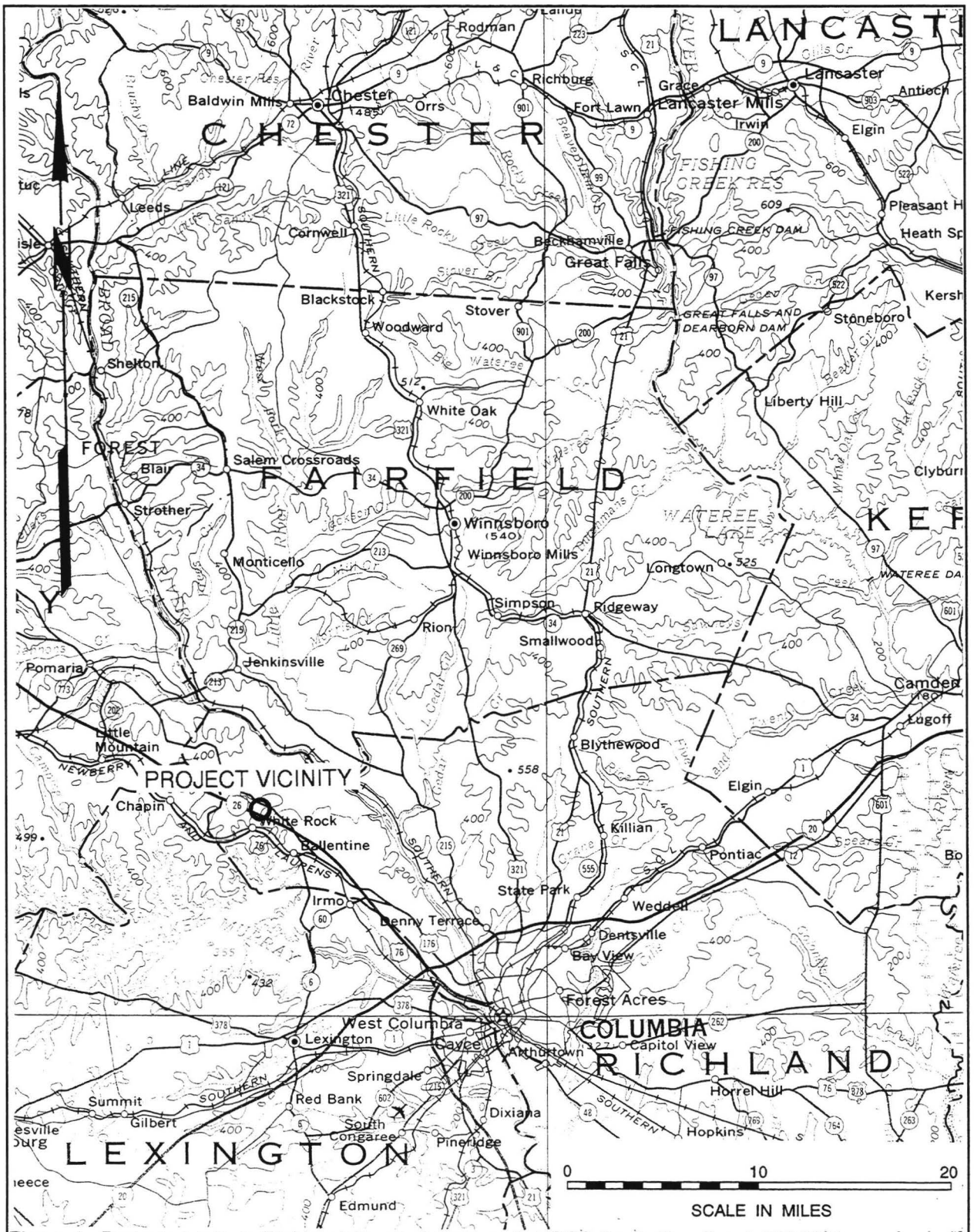

Figure 1. Project vicinity in Richland County (basemap is USGS South Carolina 1:500,000).

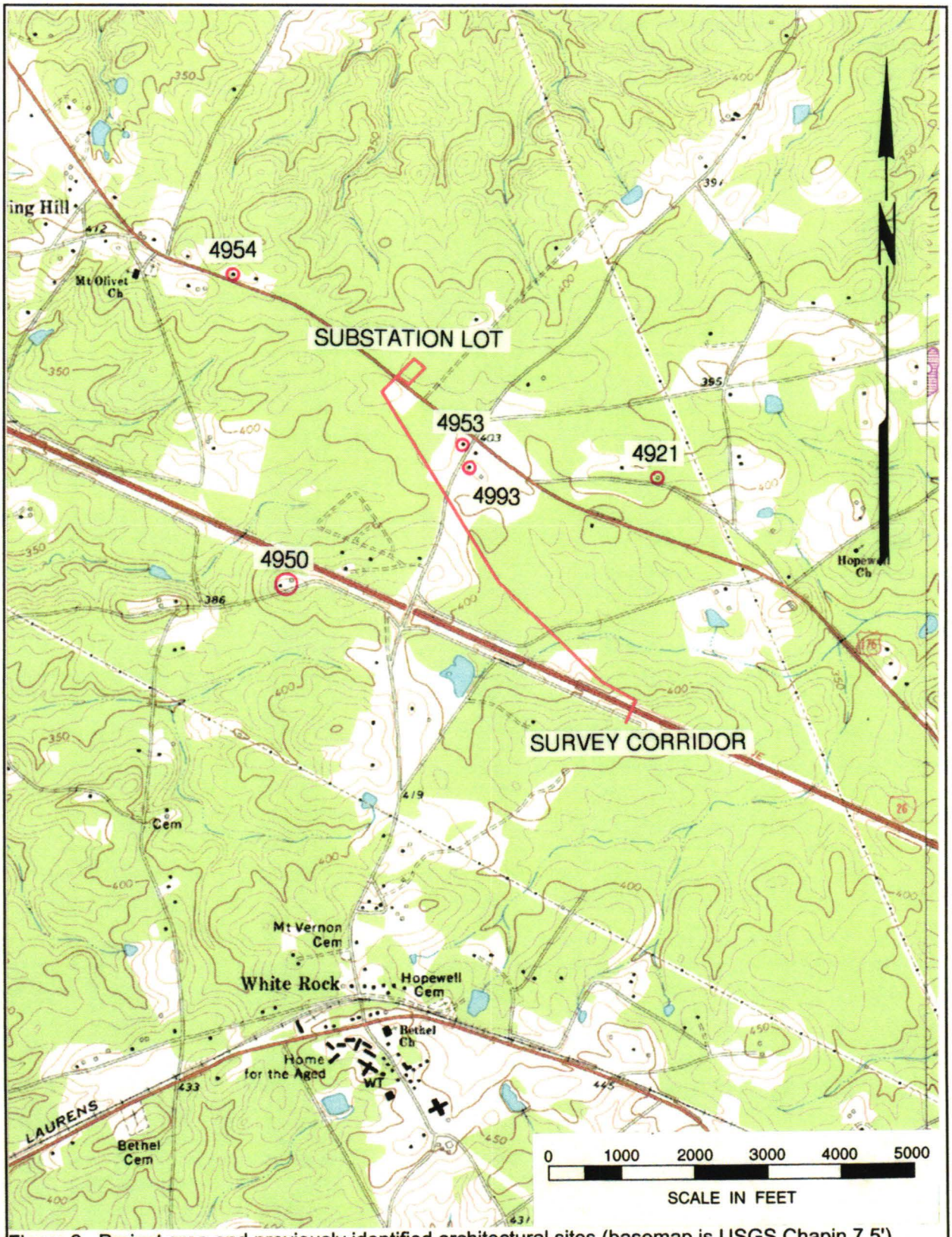

Figure 2. Project area and previously identified architectural sites (basemap is USGS Chapin 7.5').

are color prints, which are not archival. The negatives and prints for these photographs are retained by Chicora Foundation.

NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Physiography

Richland County, situated in the approximate center of South Carolina, is bounded to the southwest by the Congaree River, to the southeast by the Wateree River, to the northeast by Kershaw County, to the north by Fairfield County, as well as sections of both Cedar Creek and the Broad River, and to the northwest by Lexington County.

The county is located within two distinct physiographic provinces – the Piedmont Plateau and the Atlantic Coastal Plain. The northern half of the coastal plain is known as the Sand Hills. About a third of Richland County is found within the Piedmont, separated from the coastal plain by an irregular line, known as the Fall Line, that extends north from the vicinity of Columbia and runs west of US 21 to Blythewood. From Blythewood, the Fall Line continues southeast, entering Kershaw County at the confluence of Twentyfive Mile Creek and Rice Creek.

The project area is situated in the Piedmont. Physiographically, the area is a thoroughly dissected plain. The relief ranges from nearly level to steep, but it is dominantly gently sloping to moderately steep. In many cases the sandy deposits of the Sand Hills lie directly on the crystalline rocks of the Piedmont (Kovacik and Winberry 1987; Murphy 1995).

The survey corridor, therefore, is in close contact with a range of physiographic regions. The corridor is located on the dissected plains consisting of the hills and valleys cut by creeks and rivers as they flow toward the coastal plain. Possibly part of the peneplain, the Piedmont is characterized by the dendritic stream patterns. It is also characterized by a range of metavolcanic, quartz, and quartzite materials used by Native Americans for stone tools. To the south is the Coastal Plain, where the topography changes dramatically, the hilly upper Coastal Plain giving way to the broad expanses of relatively flat, level ground associated with the lower Coastal Plain. These areas provide sources for Coastal Plain cherts, also used extensively for tool manufacture.

On the project corridor the elevations range from about 390 to 405 feet above mean sea level (AMSL). There are no distinct ridge tops,

Figure 3. View of pines and hardwoods along the corridor.

however, the corridor stays generally level with few low, wetland areas, such as near a portion of Boyd Branch at the southern portion of the corridor.

Geology and Soils

Most of the rocks of the Piedmont are gneiss and schist, with some marble and quartzite (Hasselton 1974). Some less intensively metamorphosed rocks, such as slate, occur along the eastern part of the province from southern Virginia into Georgia. This area, called the Slate Belt, is characterized by slightly lower ground with wider river valleys. Consequently, the Slate Belt has been favored for reservoir sites (Johnson 1970), as well as prehistoric occupation (see Coe 1964). In Richland County many of the Piedmont soils, such as the Nason-Georgeville unit where the project corridor is situated, are weathered from argillites rich in silica and alumina. Other soils are formed in saprolite that weathered from crystalline rocks and "Carolina slates". Soils from the river floodplains formed in sediment that washed from the uplands of the Piedmont province.

The survey corridor is situated on four soil types: Georgeville silt loams, Orange loams, Nason silt loams, and Kirksey loams. The Georgeville soils are well-drained soils with an A1 horizon of reddish brown (5YR4/4) silt loam to a depth of 0.5 foot over a red (2.5YR5/6) loam to a depth of 0.8 foot. A red (2.5YR4/8) clay is found in the subsoil of this series. The Orange series consists of somewhat poorly drained soils with an Ap horizon of dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) loam to a depth of 0.8 foot over a light brownish gray (10YR6/2) loam to just under 1.0 foot. The subsoil consists of a yellowish brown (10YR5/8) silt loam. Nason soils are well drained and formed from the Carolina slate (Lawrence 1978). The A1 horizon consists of a grayish brown (10YR5/2) silt loam to a depth of 0.4 foot over a yellowish brown (10YR6/4) silt loam to just under 1.0 foot. The Kirksey series of soils, also formed in material weathered from slate has an A1 horizon of light brownish gray (2.5Y6/2) loam to a depth of 0.5 foot over a pale yellow (2.5&7/4) loam to a depth of 0.8 foot.

The 1934 South Carolina Erosion Survey by M.W. Lowry found that this portion of Richland County exhibited moderate sheet erosion (Lowry 1934). Although Richland County was not included in Stanley Trimble's erosion study of the Southern Piedmont, Fairfield County, to the east of the project corridor, was reported to have lost over a foot of soil through erosion in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Trimble 1974:3). It is part of the area classified by Trimble as having high antebellum erosion land use with postbellum continuation and belonging to his Region III – the Cotton Plantation Area (Trimble 1974:15).

In 1826 Robert Mills dismissed the Piedmont soils in what was then the Lexington District, referring only to the "sandy region," of the district (Mills 1972 [1826]:612). In the Richland District, however, he commented that similar lands could be classified as "Fourth class – The first quality pine land . . . possesses a dark-colored mould, with a substratum of clay: it is well calculated to produce cotton, wheat, and corn" (Mills 1972 [1826]:696). Further into the Piedmont Mills offered more detail. For example, in Newberry County to the northwest, he remarked that "the clay, or as they are termed, mulatto lands, are best adapted to wheat and tobacco" with cotton grown primarily on the sandier soils (Mills 1972 [1826]:641). In addition he commented that, "the lands are too much neglected; no system of manuring them when they begin to fail is pursued . . . the consequence of which is, that they are washed into gullies and destroyed" (Mills 1972 91826]:653).

Climate

Elevation, latitude, and distance from the coast work together to affect the climate of South Carolina. In addition, the more westerly mountains block or moderate many of the cold air masses that flow across the state from west to east. Even the very cold air masses which cross the mountains are warmed somewhat by compression before they descend on the Piedmont and adjacent Sand Hills.

Consequently, the climate of Richland County is temperate. The winters are relatively mild and the summers warm and humid. Rainfall in the amount of about 46 inches is adequate, although less than in some neighboring counties.

About 27 inches of rain occur during the growing season, with periods of drought no uncommon during the summer months. As Hilliard illustrates, these droughts tended to be localized and tended to occur several years in a row, increasing the hardship on those attempting to recover from the previous year's crop failure (Hilliard 1984:16). Perhaps the best wide-scale example of this was the drought of 1845, which caused a series of very serious grain and food shortages throughout the state.

Figure 4. View of wetland area along the corridor.

The average growing season is about 232 days, although early freezes in the fall and late frosts in the spring can reduce this period by as much as 30 or more days (Lawrence 1978:73). Consequently, most cotton planting, for example, did not take place until early May, avoiding the possibility that a late frost would damage the young seedlings.

Floristics

Piedmont forests generally belong to the Oak-Hickory Formation as established by Braun (1950). These forests are generally composed of medium tall to tall forests of broadleaf deciduous and needleleaf evergreen trees (Küchler 1964). The major components of this ecosystem include hickory, shortleaf pine, loblolly pine, white oak, and post oak.

The project corridor runs through areas of mixed pines and hardwoods along with low, wetland areas with hardwoods and palmettos.

Prehistoric Environment

A reconstruction of paleoenvironmental features has gradually emerged within the past several decades and is based on the work of Whitehead (1965, 1967, 1972, 1973) and Watts (1970, 1975, 1980). Unfortunately, our understanding of environmental change is general and is based almost entirely on pollen analysis of lake sediments and buried organic layers situated in Piedmont areas outside South Carolina. The pollen studies give evidence of vegetational changes which in turn provide suggestions concerning climatic change. These studies can be important to the archaeologist because they allow inferences to be drawn on the nature of the cultural-environmental interactions, such as the adaptive shifts human populations made to counter ecological shifts. It is recognized that these inferences must be based on the Paleoenvironment, not the extant environment.

Based largely on work from southeastern

Virginia and North Carolina, Whitehead (1965) has employed a tripartite division of the preceding 25,000 years: Full Glacial (25,000-15,000 B.P.), Late Glacial (15,000-10,000 B.P.), and Post-Glacial or Holocene (10,000 B.P.-present).

During the Full Glacial the Coastal Plain was boreal, although the vegetation was sparse, which suggests a relatively dry climate. Voorhies (1974), based on a paleontological assemblage from east-central Georgia, suggests a cool, moist climate instead. Watts' (1980) work from White Pond at the edge of the Inner Coastal Plain, found jack pine, red spruce, and herbs, which appear to reflect a boreal forest climate. During the Late Glacial period there was a gradual change to a hemlock-northern hardwoods forest type and eventually to a modern condition. From White Pond, Watts (1980) identified a forest dominated by oak, hickory, beech, and ironwood and interprets this assemblage as a mesic deciduous forest typical of a cool and moist environment.

The mesic deciduous forest began to change early in the Holocene and was replaced by a more xeric forest comprised of modern flora. Again from White Pond, Watts (1980) notes the rapid loss of hickory, beech, and ironwood after 9,500 B.P. with the equally rapid rise of southern pine species. The oak species remain, and sweet gum and tupelo are found. For a brief synopsis of the environmental changes occurring around 10,000 B.P. the discussion by Anderson and O-Steen (1992:3) is particularly useful, especially since it recognizes the different zones within South Carolina.

An essentially modern flora is postulated by Whitehead (1965) and Watts (1971) by 5,000 B.P. with the spread of oak-hickory forests. But this, however, fails to recognize the extraordinary importance of the changes occurring during this period. As Sassaman and Anderson note:

> the period of mid-Holocene global warming referred to variously as the Altithermal, Hypsithermal, and Climatic Potimum is the Middle Archaic Period, as its effects on vegetation and fauna are considered to be so dramatic that they completely reconfigured patterns of human settlement, subsistence, social relations, and technology (Sassaman and Anderson 1994:6).

Unfortunately, as Sassaman and Anderson note, there are relatively few data available for South Carolina and the situation, even now, is far from clear. In fact, while there are mounting data arguing for dramatic changes in the American Midwest, the evidence from the Southeast is, at best, ambiguous. Sassaman and Anderson (1994:7-12) review the available data without arriving at any widely accepted consensus.

When the palynological data are explored, there is evidence that pines advanced in the Coastal Plain, but may have been held back, at least to some degree, in the Piedmont. This spread of pine, it seems, may be associated with the shift of Middle Archaic populations into the upper portions of the state, or at least helped focus attention on "oases of hydric and mesic communities" (Sassaman and Anderson 1994:10).

If geological and soils evidence is examined, there seem to be two focused camps – those arguing that in general South Carolina was fairly moist and those who se cycles of limited moisture followed chronic dry conditions. Although there are too few data to support one proposition over the other, acceptance of cycling might help explain a broad range of site conditions. Erosion seen in the geological record may be from either periods of wet weather or from dry conditions with the denuding of the landscape. Regardless, these erosional periods may explain at least some of the Middle Archaic stratigraphic profiles.

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC BACKGROUND

Previous Research

Richland County has received a large amount of attention. Most of the surveys performed in the county are compliance related including several near the current survey area (see Judge 1983; Trinkley 2000).

Prehistoric Overview

Overviews for South Carolina's prehistory, while of differing lengths and complexity, are available in virtually every compliance report prepared. There are, in addition, some "classic" sources well worth attention, such as Joffre Coe's *Formative Cultures* (Coe 1964), as well as some new general overviews (such as Sassaman et al. 1990 and Goodyear and Hanson 1989). Also extremely helpful, perhaps even essential, are a handful of recent local synthetic statements, such as that offered by Sassaman and Anderson (1994) for the Middle and Late Archaic and by Anderson et al. (1992) for the Paleoindian and Early Archaic. Only a few of the many sources are included in this study, but they should be adequate to give the reader a "feel" for the area and help establish a context for the various sites identified in the study areas. For those desiring a more general synthesis, perhaps the most readable and well balanced is that offered by Judith Bense (1994), *Archaeology of the Southeastern United States: Paleoindian to World War I*. Figure 5 offers a generalized view of South Carolina's cultural periods.

Paleoindian Period

The Paleoindian Period, most commonly dated from about 12,000 to 10,000 B.P., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notch projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points, side scrapers, end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977; Williams 1965).

The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented toward the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124). Survey data for Paleoindian tools, most notably fluted points, is somewhat dated, but has been summarized by Charles and Michie 1992). They reveal a widespread distribution across the state (see also Anderson 1992b:Figure 5.1) with at least several concentrations relating to intensity of collector activity.

Distinctive projectile points include lanceolates such as Clovis, Dalton, perhaps the Hardaway, and Big Sandy (Coe 1964; Phelps 1983; Oliver 1985). A temporal sequence of Paleoindian projectile points was proposed by Williams (1965:24-51), but according to Phelps (1983:18) there is little stratigraphic or chronometric evidence for it. While this is certainly true, a number of authors, such as Anderson (1992a) and Oliver (1985) have assembled impressive data sets. We are inclined to believe that while often not conclusively proven by stratigraphic excavations (and such proof may be an unreasonable expectation), there is a large body of circumstantial evidence. The weight of this evidence tends to provide considerable support.

Unfortunately, relatively little is known about Paleoindian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization (see, however, Anderson 1992b for an excellent overview and synthesis of what is known). Generally, archaeologists agree that the Paleoindian groups were at a band level of society, were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

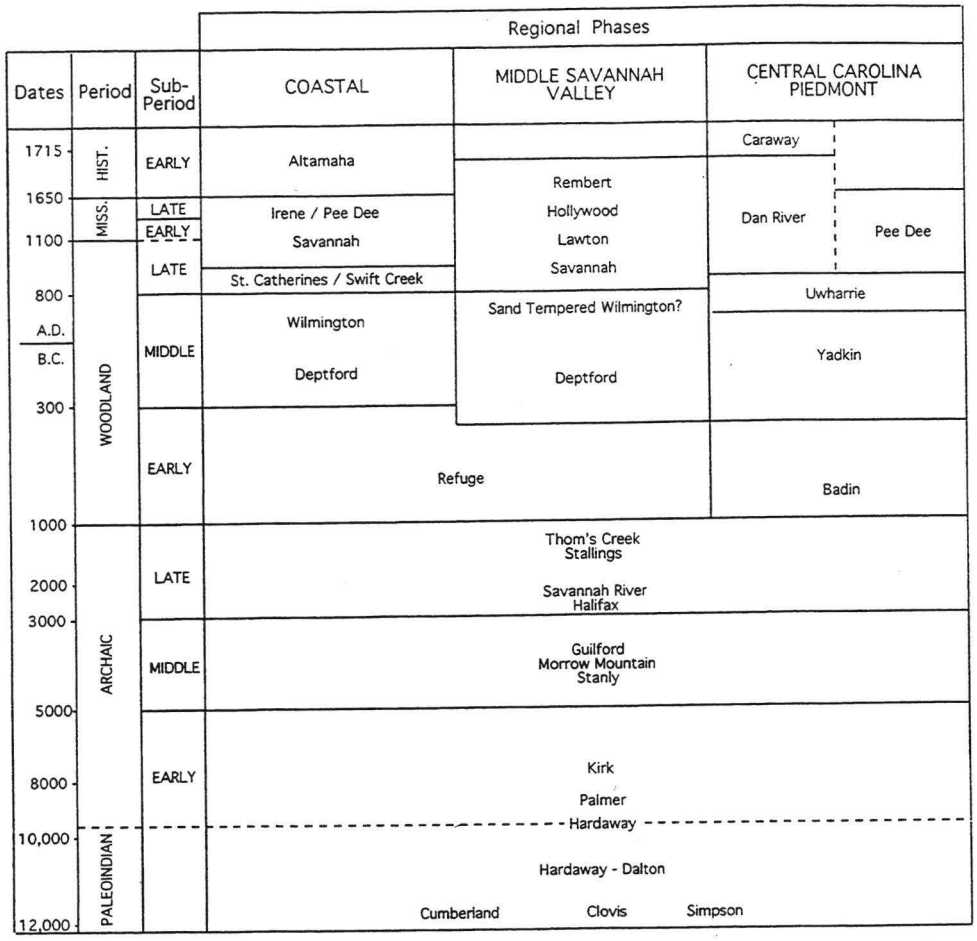

Figure 5. Generalized cultural sequence for South Carolina.

Archaic Period

The Archaic Period, which dates from 10,000 to 3,000 B.P.[1], does not form a sharp

[1] The terminal point for the Archaic is no clearer than that for the Paleoindian and many researchers suggest a terminal date of 4,000 B.P. rather than 3,000 B.P. There is also the question of whether ceramics, such as the fiber-tempered Stallings ware, will be included as Archaic, or will be included with the Woodland. Oliver, for example, argues that the inclusion of ceramics with Late Archaic attributes "complicates and confuses classification and interpretation needlessly" (Oliver 1981:20). He comments that according to the original definition of the Archaic, it "represents a preceramic horizon" and that "the presence of ceramics provides a convenient marker for separation of the Archaic and Woodland periods (Oliver 1981:21). Others would counter that such an approach ignores cultural continuity and forces an artificial, and perhaps unrealistic, separation. Sassaman and Anderson (1994:38-44), for example, include Stallings and Thom's Creek wares in their discussion of "Late Archaic Pottery." While this issue has been of considerable importance along the Carolina and Georgia coasts, it has never affected the Piedmont, which seems to have embraced pottery far later, well into the conventional Woodland period. The importance of the issue in the Sandhills, unfortunately, is not well known.

break with the Paleoindian Period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. Associated with this is a reliance on a broad spectrum of small mammals, although the white tailed deer was likely the most commonly exploited animal. Archaic period assemblages, exemplified by corner-notched and broad-stemmed projectile points, are fairly common, perhaps because the swamps and drainages offered especially attractive ecotones.

Many researchers have reported data suggestive of a noticeable population increase from the Paleoindian into the Early Archaic. This has tentatively been associated with a greater emphasis on foraging. Diagnostic Early Archaic artifacts include the Kirk Corner Notched point. As the climate became hotter and drier than the previous Paleoindian period, resulting in vegetational changes, it also affected settlement patterning as evidenced by a long-term Kirk phase midden deposit at the Hardaway site (Coe 1964:60). This is believed to have been the result of a change in subsistence strategies.

Settlements during the Early Archaic suggest the presence of a few very large, and apparently intensively occupied, sites which can best be considered base camps. Hardaway might be one such site. In addition, there were numerous small sites which produce only a few artifacts — these are the "network of tracks" mentioned by Ward (1983:65). The base camps produce a wide range of artifact types and raw materials which has suggested to many researchers long-term, perhaps seasonal or multi-seasonal, occupation. In contrast, the smaller sites are thought of as special purpose or foraging sites (see Ward 1983:67).

Middle Archaic (8,000 to 6,000 B.P.) diagnostic artifacts include Morrow Mountain, Guilford, Stanly and Halifax projectile points. Much of our best information on the Middle Archaic comes from sites investigated west of the Appalachian Mountains, such as the work by Jeff Chapman and his students in the Little Tennessee River Valley (for a general overview see Chapman 1977, 1985a, 1985b). There is good evidence that Middle Archaic lithic technologies changed dramatically. End scrapers, at times associated with Paleoindian traditions, are discontinued, raw materials tend to reflect the greater use of locally available materials, and mortars are initially introduced. Associated with these technological changes there seem to also be some significant cultural modifications. Prepared burials begin to more commonly occur and storage pits are identified. The work at Middle Archaic river valley sites, with their evidence of a diverse floral and faunal subsistence base, seems to stand in stark contrast to Caldwell's Middle Archaic "Old Quartz Industry" of Georgia and the Carolinas, where axes, choppers, and ground and polished stone tools are very rare.

The Late Archaic, usually dated from 6,000 to 3,000 or 4,000 B.P., is characterized by the appearance of large, square stemmed Savannah River projectile points (Coe 1964). These people continued to intensively exploit the uplands much like earlier Archaic groups with, the bulk of our data for this period coming from the Uwharrie region in North Carolina.

In addition to the presence of Savannah River points, the Late Archaic also witnessed the introduction of steatite vessels (see Coe 1964:112-113; Sassaman 1993), polished and pecked stone artifacts, and grinding stones. Some also include the introduction of fiber-tempered pottery about 4000 B.P. in the Late Archaic (for a discussion see Sassaman and Anderson 1994:38-44). This innovation is of special importance along the Georgia and South Carolina coasts, but seems to have had only minimal impact in the uplands of South or North Carolina.

There is evidence that during the Late Archaic the climate began to approximate modern climatic conditions. Rainfall increased resulting in a more lush vegetation pattern. The pollen record indicates an increase in pine which reduced the oak-hickory nut masts which previously were so widespread. This change probably affected settlement patterning since nut masts were now more isolated and concentrated. From research in the Savannah River valley near Aiken, South Carolina, Sassaman has found considerable diversity in Late Archaic site types with sites occurring in virtually every upland environmental zone. He suggests that this more complex settlement pattern evolved from an increasingly

complex socio-economic system. While it is unlikely that this model can be simply transferred to the Sandhills of South Carolina without an extensive review of site data and micro-environmental data, it does demonstrate one approach to understanding the transition from Archaic to Woodland.

Woodland Period

As previously discussed, there are those who see the Woodland beginning with the introduction of pottery. Under this scenario the Early Woodland may begin as early as 4,500 B.P. and continued to about 2,300 B.P. Diagnostics would include the small variety of the Late Archaic Savannah River Stemmed point (Oliver 1985) and pottery of the Stallings and Thoms Creek series. These sand tempered Thoms Creek wares are decorated using punctations, jab-and-drag, and incised designs (Trinkley 1976). Also potentially included are Refuge wares, also characterized by sandy paste, but often having only a plain or dentate-stamped surface (Waring 1968). Others would have the Woodland beginning about 3,000 B.P. and perhaps as late as 2,500 B.P. with the introduction of pottery which is cord-marked or fabric-impressed and suggestive of influences from northern cultures.

There remains, in South Carolina, considerable ambiguity regarding the pottery series found in the Sandhills and their association with coastal plain and piedmont types. The earliest pottery found at many sites may be called either Deptford or Yadkin, depending on the research or their inclination at any given moment.

The Deptford phase, which dates from 3050 to 1350 B.P., is best characterized by fine to coarse sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. The Deptford settlement pattern involves both coastal and inland sites.

Inland sites such as 38AK228-W, 38LX5, 38RD60, and 38BM40 indicate the presence of an extensive Deptford occupation on the Fall Line and the Inner Coastal Plain/Sand Hills, although sandy, acidic soils preclude statements on the subsistence base (Anderson 1979; Ryan 1972; Trinkley 1980). These interior or upland Deptford sites, however, are strongly associated with the swamp terrace edge, and this environment is productive not only in nut masts, but also in large mammals such as deer. Perhaps the best data concerning Deptford "base camps" comes from the Lewis-West site (38AK228-W), where evidence of abundant food remains, storage pit features, elaborate material culture, mortuary behavior, and craft specialization has been reported (Sassaman et al. 1990:96-98; see also Sassaman 1993 for similar data recovered from 38AK157).

Further to the north and west, in the Piedmont, the Early Woodland is marked by a pottery type defined by Coe (1964:27-29) as Badin.[2] This pottery is identified as having very fine sand in the paste with an occasional pebble. Coe identified cord-marked, fabric-marked, net-impressed, and plain surface finishes. Beyond this pottery little is known about the makers of the Badin wares and relatively few of these sherds are reported from South Carolina sites.

Somewhat more information is available for the Middle Woodland, typically given the range of about 2,300 B.P. to 1,200 B.P. In the Piedmont and even into the Sand Hills, the dominant Middle Woodland ceramic type is typically identified as the Yadkin series. Characterized by a crushed quartz temper the pottery includes surface treatments of cord-marked, fabric-marked, and a very few linear check-stamped sherds (Coe 1964:30-32). It is regrettable that several of the seemingly "best" Yadkin sites, such as the Trestle site (31An19) explored by Peter Cooper (Ward 1983:72-73), have never been published.

Yadkin ceramics are associated with medium-sized triangular points, although Oliver (1981) suggests that a continuation of the Piedmont Stemmed Tradition to at least 1650 B.P. coexisted with this Triangular Tradition. The Yadkin in South Carolina has been best explored by research at 38SU83 in Sumter County (Blanton et al. 1986) and at 38FL249 in Florence County

[2] The ceramics suggest clear regional differences during the Woodland which seem to only be magnified during the later phases. Ward (1983:71), for example, notes that there "marked distinctions" between the pottery from the Buggs Island and Gaston Reservoirs and that from the south-central Piedmont.

(Trinkley et al. 1993)

In some respects the Late Woodland (1,200 B.P. to 400 B.P.) may be characterized as a continuation of previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblages. While outside the Carolinas there were major cultural changes, such as the continued development and elaboration of agriculture, the Carolina groups settled into a lifeway not appreciably different from that observed for the previous 500-700 years. From the vantage point of the Middle Savannah Valley Sassaman and his colleagues note that, "the Late Woodland is difficult to delineate typologically from its antecedent or from the subsequent Mississippian period" (Sassaman et al. 1990:14). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson 1971).

Historic Research

There are several histories of Richland County which should be consulted for more detailed information concerning the project area, including Green's *A History of Richland County* (Green 1932) and Moore's (1993) *Columbia and Richland County: A South Carolina Community.* This synopsis will only briefly cover the major historic influences on the region.

While the coastal region has received much of the historical research, the interior of the state is equally interesting. Although Carolina was settled by the English as a small cog in the mercantile system, the early economy was based more on Indian trade, ranching, subsistence agriculture, and the harvesting of forest products – all forms of rudimentary plunder – than on the production of raw materials so essential to the wealth and power of England. By 1700, only 20 years after the founding of Charles Towne, the trading post at the Congarees (Congaree Creek near Columbia), was well established (se Michie n.d.). This post was on the path from Charleston to Keowee, the capital of the Cherokee Nation, while other paths lead from the Congarees to the Creek and Catawba nations. It was this pattern of Indian-White relations which lead to the death of six out of every seven Native Americans along the South Carolina coast.

The Yemassee War (1715-1716) resulted in many of the Native American groups in South Carolina being either destroyed, enslaved, or driven out of the region. After the defeat of the Indian threat, the General Assembly opened Indian lands to settlement and in 1718 Fort Congaree was established at the Congarees to protect settlers in the region. Fort Congaree was abandoned and later replaced by Fort Granby, further to the north. The area, however, was far from safe, apparently being part of the undivided Cherokee and Catawba hunting ground.

When South and North Carolina were divided in the early 1700s there were no interior settlements. In 1730 George II ordered that eleven townships be established in the back country to promote settlement. Within each township, a town would be drawn up fronting the river and each settler would receive a town lot and 50 acres of plantation lands for each family member. Two of these townships, Amelia and Saxe Gotha, are south and west of Columbia and a third, Fredericksburg was located to the east, in the Camden area. Lexington, where the project area was originally located, has its origins in the Saxe Gotha township.

By the late 1730s settlers were moving into the area between the Wateree and Congaree rivers. These first settlers included not only South Carolinians from the coastal region, but also individuals from Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia. In the Lexington area the first settlers were Swiss bounty settlers who arrived about 1735. In 1744, 600 "Palatine" German immigrants followed, and all-told upwards of 8,000 Germans settled in Saxe Gotha, Orangeburg, and Amelia townships. All were drawn to the region by the availability of bounty lands and a promotional tract by John Jacob Riemensperger, a Swiss immigrant who was paid a shilling a head for bringing in settlers (Meriwether 1940). By the 1760s there were additional settlers from the Pennsylvania area, spurred by the Indian attacks on Scotch-Irish settlements in Pennsylvania during the French and Indian War.

There was also a wave of English immigrants, lured not only by cheap land, but also displaced by the defeat of Braddock in 1755.

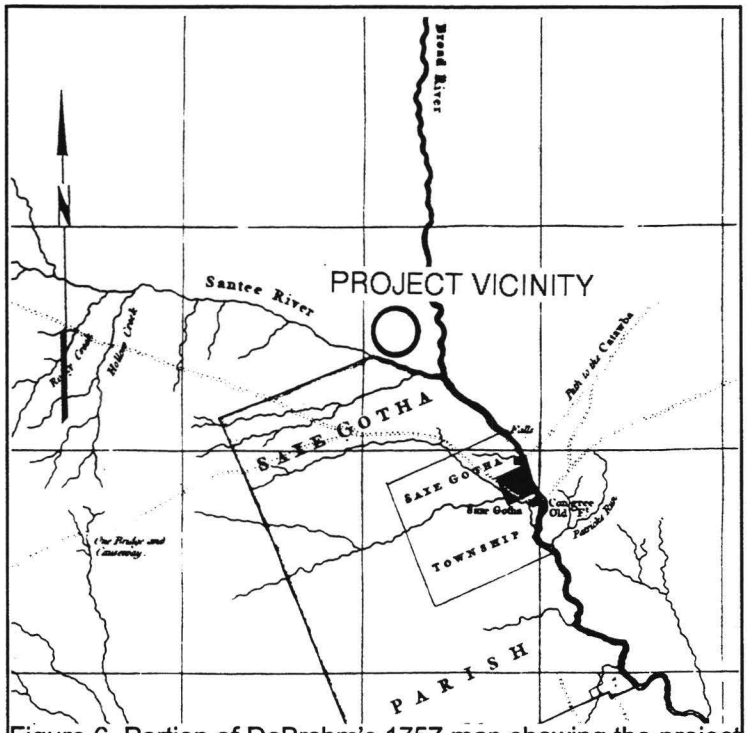

Figure 6. Portion of DeBrahm's 1757 map showing the project corridor.

Eventually these English settlers would comprise less than half of the settlers in the Lexington area, but would dominate both politics and trade. Nevertheless, it was the strong German and Swiss population which would make the area the cradle of Lutheranism in the southern United States. This concentration of Swiss-German (Deutsche) yeoman farmers and mechanics along and between the Broad and Saluda rivers gave the region its name of Dutch Fork. It has been described by historians as a "homogeneous community of ethnic cohesiveness characterized by a society of small farms, disdain for politics, intricate ties of kinship through generations of intermarriage and firm adherence to Lutheranism" (Fox and Harmon 1982).

Nevertheless, DeBrahm's *Map of South Carolina and a Part of Georgia* from 1757 shows the Lexington County area as uncharted – and likely very sparsely settled (Figure 6). Even as late as 1775, Mouzon shows little activity in this region on his *An Accurate Map of North and South Carolina* (Figure 7).

In this early period of European settlement there was little connection with the legal authorities on the coast (i.e., Charleston), leaving the Up Country largely autonomous. This led to the emergence of the Regulator Movement of the 1760s, a vigilante organization which attempted to maintain order and provide security through a system of courts and offices (Racine 1980:13). By the eve of the Revolution, two-thirds of the South Carolina population lived in the Up Country (Racine 1980:14).

By the onset of the American Revolution, the population of the Carolina Up Country was quite diverse in its ethnic, religious, and political backgrounds. These differences seemed to localize the

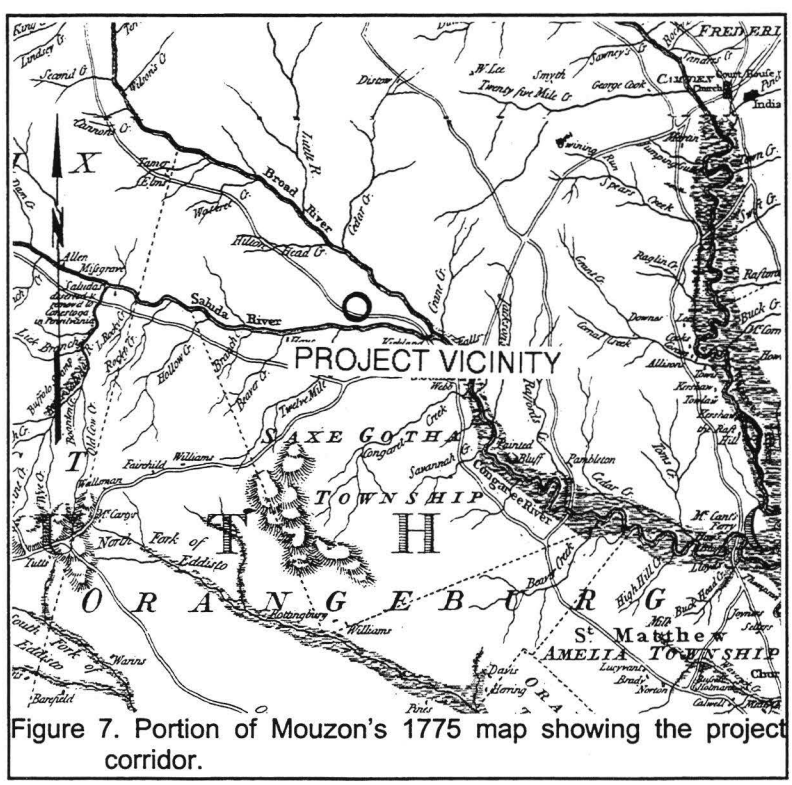

Figure 7. Portion of Mouzon's 1775 map showing the project corridor.

hostilities between Whigs and Tories living side by side. The Swiss-German disinterest in politics initially made the Dutch Fork farmers take little notice of the Revolution, or its political and economic causes. What did attract their eventual attention was the behavior of the Tories and British regulars – which eventually made the region a battleground. Fox and Harmon (1982) report skirmishes near Gilbert (The Juniper), Pelion (Lynch's Mill), Hollow Creek, near Lexington (Tarrar Spring), and Clouds Creek. During the Revolution Fort Granby (actually a residence and store built about 1765 by John Chestnut and Joseph Kershaw of Camden) was used as an outpost by the British forces. In May 1781 it was taken by Lee and his forces.

Though the end of the Revolutionary War brought few changes to the life of the Up Country farmers, a solid framework of social and political organization was beginning to emerge. In 1785, an act of the State Legislature formed Lexington County and provided that a court be held at the county seat every three months. The town of Granby was established as the county seat. Initially an important commercial center because of its location at the head navigation on the Congaree, Granby began to decline as Columbia was established and found to be more healthy and less flood prone. By 1837 Granby was virtually deserted.

In 1818 Lexington's county seat was changed to a hill near Twelvemile Creek, south of the survey area. A two acre site for the new seat was purchased, but the new town of Lexington was very slow to develop. In fact, during its early years it was described as essentially woods, with only a handful of residents or structures. By 1826 Mills commented that the town contained 15 houses, "besides the public buildings" and the population did not exceed 10 families (Mills 1972 [1826]:613-614). Mills' *Atlas* of 1826 shows no activity in the project corridor.

In 1790 the Piedmont, with 81,533 inhabitants, accounted for 32.7% of South Carolina's population. By 1800 the population of this area had increased to 120,805, an increase of 48.2% over the previous decade. On obvious reason, clearly, was the promise of good agricultural lands, by this time a rare commodity in the coastal region.

Tobacco remained the economic mainstay of the Up Country until the early 1800s (Ford 1988:6). The dogged persistence of tobacco, in spite of low yields, poor quality, and strong competition, was to foreshadow the impact of cotton on South Carolina. Interspersed with subsistence crops was indigo, a crop best known from the coastal region, but produced on a number of up country plantations as well. In fact, Henry Laurens and John Lewis Gervais planned to establish a 13,200 acre indigo plantation in the Ninety Six District, but the Revolution diverted them from this plan. Other planters, however, found near immediate wealth in indigo, planting as much as 40 to 100 acres. Others favored smaller acreage, ranging from 10 to 25 acres, which

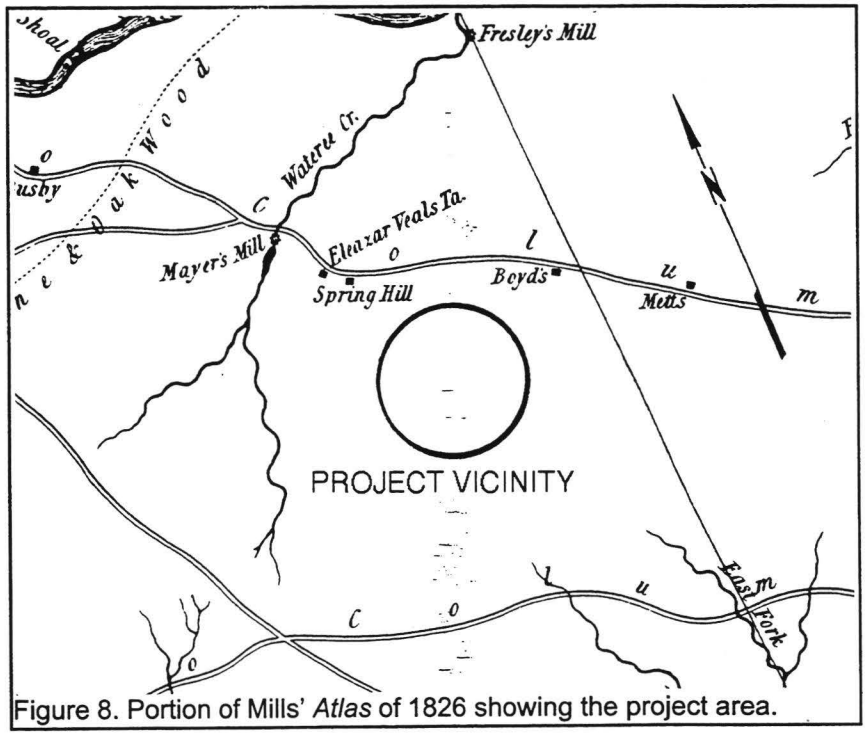

Figure 8. Portion of Mills' *Atlas* of 1826 showing the project area.

required fewer slaves but still allowed profits during the period from 1740 to 1770 (Huneycutt 1949; Rembert 1990).

The importance of South Carolina indigo waned after the Revolutionary War. Never considered of high quality, the indigo from South Carolina could not compete on the open market after its favored status ended with independence from Britain. Coupled with this political development was the development of improved processing techniques in India which drastically reduced the profitability of South Carolina indigo. The final blow was the 1793 invention of the cotton gin, which opened a new economic era in the State. Indigo continued to be grown into the eighteenth century, and in 1830 nearly 200,000 pounds were exported from South Carolina. Yet, this represented little profit and the bulk of the crop which continued to be grown in South Carolina is best considered a cottage industry.

Lacking a consistently profitable staple crop, the Up Country concentrated on the production of subsistence crops until the early 1800s with the introduction of the cotton gin and the rise of English textile mills, the out-growth of the industrial revolution. This early emphasis on food stuffs, while retarding upward mobility, had a lasting influence on the region, its economy, and its world view. in some areas, however, cotton never was an especially profitable crop.

In 1850 Lexington ranged 22nd (out of 29) in cotton production, reporting only 4,608 bales of cotton. The county's tobacco yield was equally paltry – only 25 pounds. The county produced only 382,518 bushels of corn – ranking 21st in the state. Only 14% of the farm acreage was listed as improved and the average value of a Lexington County farm was only $1,284. Only Horry ranked lower, with an average value of $527. The average value in Richland County was $1,388. The county had a population of only 12,907, with 43% representing African American slaves (DeBow 1854:302-305). By 1860 it appears that much of the county supported itself on timber and there were 75 saw mills, but only one cotton mill (Fox and Harmon 1982).

In Richland County, the dependence on cotton resulted in the failure to diversify crops and establish any meaningful industry (see Adams and Trinkley 1992 for a discussion of the Columbia Canal and Trinkley 1993 for a discussion of the Palmetto Foundry). It also resulted in the number of African American slaves increasing from 1,451 in 1790 (when there were 2,479 white residents) to 3,168 in 1800 (at which time there were only 2,929 whites in the county). This disparity of population continued until 1920.

The Civil War had little impact in Lexington and northern Richland Counties. The most important affect of the Civil War, however, was the destruction of the plantation system and the creation, in its place, of a tenant system that relied on the hiring of farm laborers for a portion of the crop, a fixed amount of money, or both.

Immediately after the Civil War cotton prices peaked, causing many Southerners to plant cotton again, in the hope of recouping losses from the War. The single largest problem across the South, however, was labor. While some freedmen stayed on to work, others, apparently many others, left. An Englishman traveling through the South immediately after the war remarked that, "Thirty-seven thousand negroes, according to newspaper estimates, have left South Carolina already, traveling west" (quoted in Orser 1988:49).

The hiring of freedmen began immediately after the war, with variable results. The Freedmen's Bureau attempted to establish a system of wag labor, but the effort was largely tempered by the enactment of the Black Codes by the South Carolina Legislature in September 1865. These Codes allowed nominal freedom, while establishing a new kind of slavery, severely restricting the rights and freedoms of the black majority (see Orser 1988:50). Added to the Codes were oppressive contracts which reinforced the power of the plantation owner and degraded the freedom of the Blacks. The freedmen found power, however, in their ability to break their contracts and move to a new plantation, beginning a new contract. With the high price of cotton and the scarcity of labor, this mechanism caused tremendous agitation to the plantation owners.

Gradually owners turned away from wage labor contracts to two kinds of tenancy – sharecropping and renting. While very different,

both succeeded in making land ownership very difficult, if not impossible, for the vast majority of Blacks. Sharecropping required the tenant to pay his landlord part of the crop produced, while renting required that he pay a fixed rent in either crops or money. In sharecropping the tenant supplied the labor and one-half of the fertilizer, the landlord supplied everything else – land, house, tools, work animals, animal feed, wood for fuel, and the other half of the needed fertilizer. In return the landlord received half of the crop at harvest. this system became known as "working on halves," and the tenants as "half hands," or "half tenants."

In share-renting, the landlord supplied the land, housing, and either one-quarter or one-third of the fertilizer costs. the tenant supplied the labor, animals, animal feed, tools, seed, and the remainder of the fertilizer. At harvest the crop was divided in proportion to the amount of fertilizer that each party supplied. A number of variations on this occurred, one of the most common being "third and fourth," where the landlord receive one-forth of the cotton crop and one-third of all other crops. In cash-renting the landlord provided the land and housing, with the renter providing everything else and paying a fixed per-acre rent in cash.

Between 1880 and 1925 the number of owner-operated farms in the Piedmont increased by 35.3%, while the number of cash renters increased by 375.4% and the number of sharecroppers increased by 155.8%. Moreover, 1880 was the only year between 1880 and 1925 during which a majority of Piedmont farmers were owners, and this occurred in only three counties (Orser 1988:60).

Cotton gradually became more important in Lexington's agricultural base, so that by 1900 the county's second largest crop (by acreage) was cotton, with the 32,904 acres planted in cotton producing 13,637 bales. The only crop on more land was corn, planted on 51,408 acres and yielding 401,390 bushels. Nevertheless, there was substantial acreage in wheat and oats. Truck farming was increasing, with 1,818 acres in vegetables.

Figure 9. Portion of the 1939 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Richland County* showing the project corridor.

By 1907 in Richland County, corn was planted on almost as many acres as cotton (30,399 acres compared to 35,182 acres of cotton). Industry was more common, including brick works, lumber mills, quarries, and most importantly, cotton mills.

In 1912, the town of White Rock, south of the survey corridor, became a part of Richland County.

The Great Depression of the 1930s was perhaps less disruptive in the Columbia area than many other places. Loften (1977) suggests that the diversified industrial base of Columbia, combined with its strong professional orientation helped buffer it from the depression's effects. More to the point, outside

the city agriculture was already so depressed that there were no abrupt changes in the farming community – many farm laborers were already out of work or were marginally surviving. The number of farms in Richland County was declining during the first quarter of the twentieth century (from 2,927 in 1900 to 2,748 in 1910). Although a change in the method of calculating farm units increased the number to 3,889 in 1920, the number again steadily declined to 2,787 in 1930 and 2,428 in 1940. Just as the number of farms declined, so too did the acres in farms, from a high of 238,193 in 1900 to 191,430 in 1930. Most telling, however, was the decline in farm values. In 1920 the average farm value for Richland County was $5,575 or about $54.11/acre. Within 10 years about half of this average value was lost – in 1930 the average value was calculated at $2,852. While the average value held steady between 1930 and 1940, the value per acre continued to slip – from nearly $42 in 1930 to only about $33 in 1940.

The 1939 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Richland County* shows no structures on the project corridor.

This change gradually continued over the next forty years so that in 1980 there were only 382 farms listed for Richland County, with an associated decline in farm size. Replacing agriculture in Richland County was an increased dependence on industrial and governmental activities. While the county was largely urban even as early as 1920, when 51.3% of the population lived in urban areas, this increased to 61.6% in 1940.

RESEARCH METHODS AND FINDINGS

Archaeological Field Methods and Findings

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100-foot intervals along the center line of the proposed transmission line right-of-way. Shovel tests within the proposed substation were also placed at 100-foot intervals along transects placed at 100-foot intervals. Two transects were placed along S-176 with shovel tests running northeast.

All soil would be screened through ¼-inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially by transect. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be taken to a depth of at least 1.0 foot or until subsoil was encountered. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

Should sites (defined by the presence of three or more artifacts from either surface survey or shovel tests within a 50 feet area) be identified, further tests would be used to obtain data on site boundaries, artifact quantity and diversity, site integrity, and temporal affiliation. These tests would be placed at 25 to 50 feet intervals in a simple cruciform pattern until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered. The information required for completion of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigators. Sites which appeared to be eligible or potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places would be recorded using a Garmin GPS 76 rover which tracks up to twelve satellites.

A total of 67 shovel tests were excavated along the transmission line with 8 additional tests for the substation. Soils resembled Georgeville silt loams, Orange loams, Nason silt loams, and Kirksey loams. The Georgeville soils are well-drained soils with an A1 horizon of reddish brown (5YR4/4) silt loam to a depth of 0.5 foot over a red (2.5YR5/6) loam to a depth of 0.8 foot. A red (2.5YR4/8) clay is found in the subsoil of this series. The Orange series consists of somewhat poorly drained soils with an Ap horizon of dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) loam to a depth of 0.8 foot over a light brownish gray (10YR6/2) loam to

Figure 10. View of corridor through low, wet area.

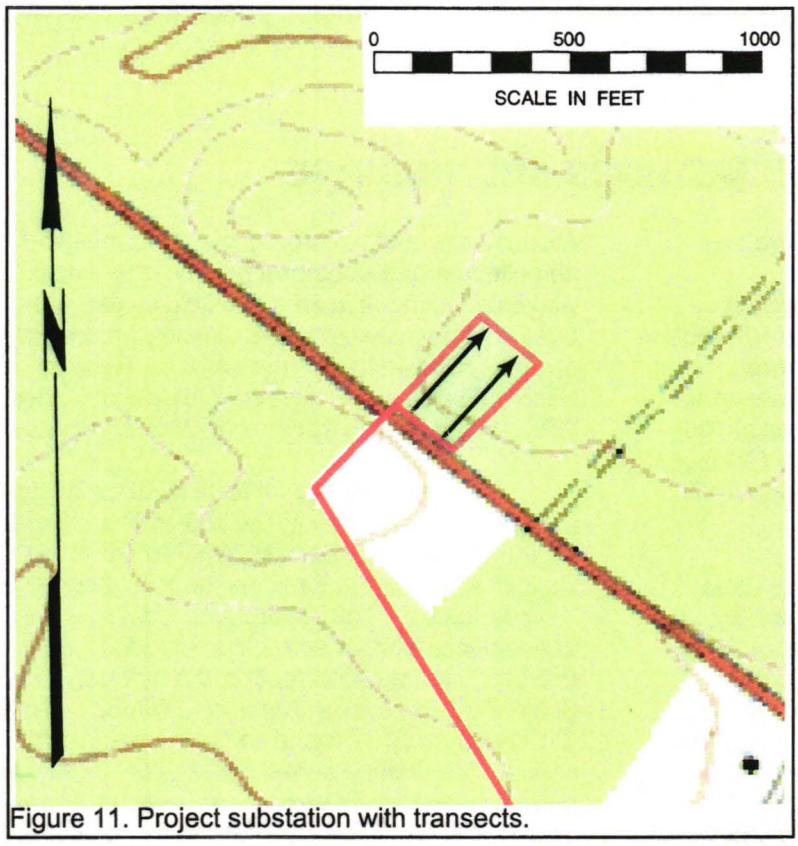

Figure 11. Project substation with transects.

just under 1.0 foot. The subsoil consists of a yellowish brown (10YR5/8) silt loam. Nason soils are well drained and formed from the Carolina slate (Lawrence 1978). The A1 horizon consists of a grayish brown (10YR5/2) silt loam to a depth of 0.4 foot over a yellowish brown (10YR6/4) silt loam to just under 1.0 foot. The Kirksey series of soils, also formed in material weathered from slate has an A1 horizon of light brownish gray (2.5Y6/2) loam to a depth of 0.5 foot over a pale yellow (2.5&7/4) loam to a depth of 0.8 foot.

Sites would be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead agency in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

Analysis of collections would follow professionally accepted standards with a level of intensity suitable to the quantity and quality of the remains.

Nevertheless, the archaeological survey of the 1.2 miles of corridor failed to identify any archaeological remains. This is most likely the result of the lack of any flat areas which would support habitation and the distance from any permanent water source.

Architectural Survey

As previously discussed, we elected to use a 0.5 mile area of potential effect (APE). The area is currently affected by existing transmission lines and two busy roads, S-176 and I-26. The new transmission line will impose no impact in the area. The architectural survey would record buildings, sites, structures, and objects which appeared to have been constructed before 1950. Typical of such projects, this survey recorded only those which "retain some measure of [their] historic integrity" (Vivian n.d.:5) and which were visible from public roads.

For each identified resource we would complete a Statewide Survey Site Form and at least two representative photographs were taken. Permanent control numbers would be assigned by the Survey Staff of the S.C. Department of Archives and History at the conclusion of the study. The Site Forms for the resources identified during this study would be submitted to the S.C. Department of Archives and History.

Site Evaluation and Findings

Archaeological sites will be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead federal agency, in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

The criteria for eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places is described by 36CFR60.4, which states:

> the quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and
>
> a. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
>
> b. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
>
> c. that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
>
> d. that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

National Register Bulletin 36 (Townsend et al. 1993) provides an evaluative process that contains five steps for forming a clearly defined explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as ceramics, lithics, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;
- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;
- identification of the important research questions the site might be able to address, given the data sets and the context;
- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets were sufficiently well preserved to address the research

Figure 12. Front view of 4921.

questions; and

- identification of important research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites being actually nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluative process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation and where typically only one site is being considered. As a result, some aspects of the evaluative process have been summarized, but we have tried to focus on an archaeological site's ability to address significant research topics within the context of its available data sets.

Figure 13. View of 4950, the Eleazer house.

Figure 14. View of 4953.

For architectural sites the evaluative process was somewhat different. Given the relatively limited architectural data available for most of the properties, we focus on evaluating these sites using National Register Criterion C, looking at the site's "distinctive characteristics." Key to this concept is the issue of integrity. This means that the property needs to have retained, essentially intact, its physical identity from the


Figure 15. View of 4954.

historic period.

Particular attention would be given to the integrity of design, workmanship, and materials. Design includes the organization of space, proportion, scale, technology, ornamentation, and materials. As *National Register Bulletin* 36 observes, "Recognizability of a property, or the ability of a property to convey its significance, depends largely upon the degree to which the design of the property is intact" (Townsend et al. 1993:18). Workmanship is evidence of the artisan's labor and skill and can apply to either the entire property or to specific features of the property. Finally, materials — the physical items used on and in the property — are "of paramount importance under Criterion C" (Townsend et al. 1993:19). Integrity here is reflected by maintenance of the original material and avoidance of replacement materials.

The survey failed to identify any structures that were visible from the survey area that would be eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. Five historic structures, however, have been recorded from a previous survey in 2002 and are in the 0.5 mile APE of the current project area.

Site 4921 is a ca. 1900 house. A 2002 historical and architectural inventory recommended the


Figure 16. View of 4993.

structure not eligible with the State Historic Preservation Office concurring with the not eligible nomination for the National Register (Martin et al. 2002). In addition, the transmission line cannot be seen from the structure.

Site 4950 is the ca. 1883 Eleazer house and barn. The house and two barns associated with the property has been previously determined not eligible for the National Register (Martin et al. 2002). The property is on the edge of the 0.5 mile APE and has no view of the proposed transmission line.

Site 4953 is a ca. 1925 house which has been determined not eligible for the National Register (Martin et al. 2002). This structure has a rear view of the transmission line which will be situated about 500 feet across a field. Only about 300 feet of the transmission line will be visible from the rear of the property, so the visual impact will be minimal. In addition, the property is already affected by a busy road, S-176, and existing transmission lines.

Site 4954 is a ca. 1925 house which has been determined not eligible for the National Register (Martin et al. 2002). This structure is on the edge of the 0.5 mile APE and has no view of the proposed transmission line.

Site 4993 is a ca. 1925 house which has been determined not eligible for the National Register (Martin et al. 2002). The house is situated about 400 feet from the proposed transmission line and has a direct view across a fallow field. However, the house has already been impacted by a busy road, S-176, and existing transmission lines, so the impact from the proposed line is minimal.

No additional structures were identified within the 0.5 mile APE.

CONCLUSIONS

This study involved the examination of a 1.2 mile transmission line corridor and substation for the Kennerley Road 69kV Project. The project area is located in the northwestern portion of Richland County. This work, conducted for Central Electric Power Cooperative, examined archaeological sites and cultural resources found on the proposed project corridor and is intended to assist the company in complying with their historic preservation responsibilities.

As a result of this investigation no archaeological sites were uncovered. This is most likely due to the lack of any definitive ridge top and the distance from any permanent water source.

A survey of historic sites was conducted within a 0.5 mile APE. No structures were found withing the APE which retained enough integrity to warrant an eligibility National Register of Historic Places nomination. The five originally identified historical resources have all been determined not eligible for the National Register and will not be affected by the transmission line.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered during construction activities. As always, contractors should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office, or Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No further land altering activities should take place in the vicinity of these discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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